Public Health Determinants of Breast Cancer Screening Uptake Among African Immigrant Women in Georgia

Oluwatoyosi A. Adekeye^{1,2,3,*}

 ^{.1.} Medela Healthcare Initiative, 28 Anon Plaza, Abuja, Nigeria
^{2.} Bingham University Abuja-Keffi Rd, 961105, New Karu, Nasarawa State Nigeria
^{3.} Formerly at the Department of Community Health and Preventive Medicine,
Satcher Health Leadership Institute, Morehouse School of Medicine, 720 Westview Drive S.W., Atlanta, GA 30310, USA

*Corresponding Author: Oluwatoyosi A. Adekeye

Publication Date: 2025/05/07

Abstract: Despite generally higher levels of education and household income. African immigrant women in the United States face unique barriers to timely screening and diagnosis of breast cancer, which hinders early detection and treatment. Research suggests that many variances are present between the cancer screening practices of American women and women who immigrated to the US. The objective of this study was to determine the rates of breast cancer screening amongst the African immigrant population in Georgia and to determine the factors that affect screening uptake. A community-based cross-sectional study was carried out using semi-structured questionnaires administered to 145 African immigrant women through a joint initiative involving Morehouse School of Medicine and Redeemer's Medical Centre. Data were analyzed using descriptive, bivariate, and multivariate statistical methods. Although 82% of participants said they practiced BSE, the study discovered that there were substantial differences in the frequency and accuracy of these activities among the various demographic groups. Although screening behaviours were favourably correlated with money and education, obstacles like ignorance, fear, mistrust of the healthcare system, cultural views, and a limited knowledge of the healthcare system in the United States continued to exist. Notably, there were misunderstandings regarding breast cancer, such as the idea that the illness has contagious or spiritual roots. Due to social, linguistic, and healthcare systemrelated problems, African immigrant women in Georgia face significant obstacles to breast cancer screening, even with relatively high levels of education and money. Our results suggest that there is an urgent need for more research to develop more culturally competent interventions to improve breast cancer screening and ultimately help reduce the prevalence of breast cancer among female African immigrants living in the US.

Keywords: Breast Cancer, Screening Practices, African Immigrants, Georgia, Breast Cancer Screening, Health Disparities, Cultural Barriers

How to Cite: Oluwatoyosi A. Adekeye (2025) Public Health Determinants of Breast Cancer Screening Uptake Among African Immigrant Women in Georgia. *International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology*, 10(4), 2590-2598. https://doi.org/10.38124/ijisrt/25apr824

I. INTRODUCTION

In 2020, there were more than 2.3 million new cases worldwide, making for over 12% of all cancer diagnoses [1]. Over 685,000 deaths worldwide were attributed to breast cancer in 2020, making it the most prevalent cancer in women and a major cause of cancer mortality [1, 2]. With more than 310,000 new cases identified each year, breast cancer ranks second among cancer-related deaths among women in the United States (U.S.), after lung and bronchus cancer [3]. By the end of 2024, estimates also suggest that breast cancer will be a contributing factor in more than 42,000 fatalities in the United States [3].

The health of Black women in the United States is substantially worse than that of women from other ethnic groups when it comes to cancer [4]. For instance, Black women have a 41% higher death rate from breast cancer than White women, even though their incidence rate is lower (126.7 vs. 134.9 per 100,000 women) [4]. Socioeconomic status (SES), delayed diagnosis, and restricted access to care are the reasons stated for the high death rate [4–6].

Black/African Americans and the general U.S. population are very different from immigrants who were born in Africa. African-born immigrants, for example, are more likely to have poor physical, psychological, and social health

[8, 9], are less likely to have a regular healthcare provider, and have a higher incidence of uninsured status [10] while having higher levels of education and household income [7]. They also tend to be a little older population [7] and have distinct chronic disease risk profiles [11].

Furthermore, African immigrants encounter particular healthcare obstacles that Black Americans do not always share. These include a lack of proficiency in English [12], a lack of understanding and reservations about the American healthcare system [13], a lack of a provider who is culturally and linguistically competent [14], and subconscious prejudice among healthcare providers regarding a patient's immigration status, which leads to lower-quality care [15]. Together with these obstacles, new research indicates that women from specific African countries (like Nigeria) may be more susceptible to breast cancer morbidity and death as a result of inherited genetic mutations in the BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes [16]. These mutations increase the risk of developing triplenegative breast cancer, a very aggressive type of disease that spreads quickly and has few effective treatment options [17-19]. There is an urgent need to tailor public health campaigns and breast cancer screening programs to the specific sociocultural norms, behaviours, and language preferences of the estimated 2 million African immigrants living in the United States [20, 21].

Black women are more likely than White women to die from breast cancer in Atlanta, Georgia, and in the United States [22, 23]. Between 2014 and 2018, the number of fatalities from breast cancer among Black women in Fulton County, which comprises the majority of Atlanta, was 31.5 per 100,000, whereas the rate for White women was 16.8 [24]. Black women in nearby Dekalb County had a breast cancer death rate of 28.9 per 100,000, whereas white women had a rate of 16.5 per 100,000.

Previous studies have identified several factors that contribute to Black women's high breast cancer mortality rate. Compared to their non-Hispanic White peers, non-Hispanic Black women in metropolitan Atlanta who receive a breast cancer diagnosis are typically younger and have nodepositive, triple-negative, later-stage tumors [24]. A triplenegative breast cancer diagnosis denotes a genetic predisposition to breast cancer and limits available treatment options [25]. Researchers have identified socioeconomic deprivation and environmental factors as crucial in understanding the greater breast cancer mortality among Black women, even if hereditary factors probably play a role [25].

In Georgia, approximately one in four Black women 40 years of age or older have not had a mammogram in the previous two years [24]. Given the poor prognosis of latestage tumors, of which Black women are disproportionately diagnosed, and Georgia's high breast cancer mortality rate, it is imperative to evaluate Atlanta's Black women's hurdles to mammograms. Black women often express psychological/knowledge-related barriers. such as pain/discomfort and worry, as well as financial/logistical barriers, according to the collective study to far on breast cancer screening [26]. The most frequently stated

impediments among underserved women, according to research, were the cost of health care and the lack of health insurance [27].

https://doi.org/10.38124/ijisrt/25apr824

Triple-negative breast cancer (tumors that do not express the estrogen receptor [ER], progesterone receptor [PR], or human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 [HER2]) is twice as common in black women in the United States as in white women. [1, 2] This disparity could be a result of racial variations in both hereditary and non-genetic variables. [3, 4] Notably, a recent study from The Cancer Genome Atlas estimates that inherited germline variants account for about 40% of the ethnic variance in breast cancer subtypes, indicating a substantial impact from genomic structure and related tumor biology that are uniquely shared. [5] An increased risk of ER-negative and triple-negative breast cancers in Black women has been linked to a larger percentage of "African ancestry," as determined by ancestryinformative markers (AIMs). [6-8]. Unfortunately, samples primarily gathered in West Africa showed "African ancestry" represented by AIMs [9], which limited the ability to modify population stratification in admixed populations and capture the varied ancestral components in the remaining parts of Africa. Furthermore, according to recent research, people who identify as Black or African American have the highest level of genetic diversity within their population of any racial or ethnic group in the United States [10, 11].

This evidence is necessary for researchers, doctors and public health educators to begin designing culturally competent interventions to reduce the prevalence of breast cancer among female African immigrants living in the US.

II. METHODS

A community-based collaborative project was carried out through a cross-sectional study that employed semistructured questionnaires, involving an academic health center, Morehouse School of Medicine, a community organization Redeemer's Medical Center (RMC), and its affiliated church. This initiative formed part of a health education campaign aimed at a largely African immigrant population. The collaboration, rooted in Community-Based Participatory principles, emerged from RMC's involvement in the nationally recognized Community Health Leadership Program (CHLP) offered by the Satcher Health Leadership Institute. The study was integrated into RMC's quarterly health education outreach program, taking place either at the RMC location, its adjacent parking area, or its partner religious center. Both venues provide ample parking and are conveniently located near public transportation.

RMC and its parent church were identified as superb community partners for this initiative due to the predominance of African immigrants among their clientele, and the welldocumented link between faith and health within this group. The Morehouse School of Medicine's Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed and granted approval for this research. The data were anonymized with identification numbers, ensuring that names and other personal information were not gathered in the questionnaire, and there was no connection to any medical records. The research team maintained the

https://doi.org/10.38124/ijisrt/25apr824

ISSN No:-2456-2165

confidentiality of all collected information, which was securely processed.

A. Data Collection

Self-completed semi-structured questionnaires were employed to gather data for the study. The tool was created to shed light on the breast cancer screening behaviors in this population and to highlight potential health interventions aimed at improving inadequate screening practices.

B. Measures

The surveys, which took about 10 minutes to finish, were offered in English, and trained volunteers were on hand to assist participants who needed help with the questionnaires. The survey included questions on demographics, healthcare access, diagnoses, practices and family history of breast cancer.

C. Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistical Package (version 25). Data analysis included descriptive statistics to examine participant demographics and other study variables of interest.

D. Materials and Methods

The research received approval from both the Plateau State Ministry of Health and the University of Liverpool Research Ethics Committee. Due to safety issues, prisons and police stations were left out of the study. After calculating the necessary sample size, women aged 18 to 65 who were employed at a Federal non-healthcare institution were randomly selected to fill out a validated questionnaire. Participants who consented were given 1-2 days to complete and submit the questionnaire. Out of the 450 questionnaires distributed, 388 were filled out and returned, yielding a response rate of 86.2%. The questionnaire data were recorded in a spreadsheet, categorical data were converted into numerical variables, and the analysis was performed using SPSS version 10 for Windows. Univariate analyses using frequency distributions and means were conducted to outline the characteristics of the respondents. Bivariate analysis involved Chi-square and t-tests to explore associations. Finally, multivariate logistic regression was performed to determine factors that independently predict awareness of cervical cancer and the Pap smear test and/or the utilization of the Pap smear test.

III. RESULTS

Table 1 Univariate analysis

Characteristics	Total (n)	
Age		
18-25	30	
25-33	25	
33-45	43	
>45 years	47	
Total	145	
No formal education	3	
High School Diploma	9	
Some College Education	22	
Completed College	119	
Unemployed	41	
Self-Employed	35	
Employed but not self-employed	64	
Retired	10	
Less than \$25,000	30	
\$25,000-\$49,000	37	
>\$50,000	56	
Single	48	
Married	87	

ISSN No:-2456-2165

Living Together	3
Divorced, separated, widowed	15

Independent variables – Age, Education, Employment status, Household income, Marital Status. Dependent variable- Breast examination practices.

Table 2 Bivariate Analysis					
Characteristics	Do you practice breast self-examination			Total	
Age	Yes	No	I Don't Know	(n)	
18-25	29	0	1	30	
25-33	21	2	2	25	
33-45	38	2	3	43	
>45 years	47	2	2	47	
		Education			
No formal education	2	0	1	3	
High School Diploma	6	1	2	9	
Some College Education	21	1	0	22	
Completed College	109	5	5	119	
	(Occupation			
Unemployed	36	1	4	41	
Self-Employed	31	0	4	35	
Employed but not self-employed	59	5	0	64	
Retired	10	0	0	10	
Level of Household Income					
Less than \$25,000	26	3	1	30	
\$25,000-\$49,000	32	2	3	37	
>\$50,000	53	2	1	56	
Marital Status					
Single	38	5	5	48	
Married	82	2	3	87	
Living Together	2	1	0	3	
Divorced, separated, widowed	14	0	1	15	
Breast cancer is one of the most common cancers in women					
Yes	128	1	4	133	
No	3	7	2	12	
I don't know	4	0	3	7	
Breast cancer occurs more commonly in older women					
Yes	61	6	3	70	

International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology https://doi.org/10.38124/ijisrt/25apr824

ISSN No:-2456-2165

No	60	2	1	63	
I don't know	16	0	4	20	
	Breast can	icer can be inherited			
Yes	107	5	3	115	
No	20	3	1	24	
I don't know	12	0	5	17	
The f	irst sign of breast ca	ncer is usually a lum	p in the breast		
Yes	121	6	4	131	
No	8	2	0	109	
I don't know	9	0	5	14	
It can also	present by nipple di	scharge or bleeding,	pain, swollen breast		
Yes	114	6	3	123	
No	3	2	1	6	
I don't know	20	0	5	25	
Bre	ast examination is u	seful for finding the	disease early		
Yes	9	18	0	27	
No	0	5	0	5	
I don't know	1	6	0	7	
Su	gery is the main for	rm of treatment for b	oreast cancer		
Yes	44	3	1	48	
No	66	4	1	71	
I don't know	25	1	6	32	
So	me men reject their	wife when she gets b	reast cancer		
Yes	37	0	2	39	
No	36	6	3	45	
I don't know	61	1	4	66	
Breast cancer is caused by evil spirits					
Yes	8	2	1	11	
No	109	4	3	116	
I don't know	14	1	5	20	
Breast cancer is caused an infection					
Yes	33	5	1	39	
No	74	1	1	76	
I don't know	27	1	6	34	
What do you think the best approach to breast cancer is?					

ISSN No:-2456-2165

International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology https://doi.org/10.38124/ijisrt/25apr824

Go to the doctor	118	6	5	129		
Go to an alternative practitioner (e.g. herbalist, traditional healer)	5	0	1	6		
Pray for good health	4	1	2	7		
If you suspect that there ma	y be a problem with	n your breast you wo	ould delay going to the	doctor because		
I will not delay	111	6	5	122		
Fear of losing my breast	4	0	1	5		
More important things to do	0	1	0	1		
Lack of money	4	0	0	4		
Lack of health insurance	8	0	1	9		
I do not know	4	0	1	5		
If	yes to question 6, ho	w did you learn to p	ractice BSE			
From a doctor	73	5	1	79		
From the media	14	0	0	14		
From churches/ religious groups	0	1	2	3		
Other	29	0	3	32		
How often do you practice BSE?						
More than once a month	37	3	0	40		
Once a month	27	0	2	29		
Once in two months	13	1	0	14		
Three to five times a year	11	0	0	11		
Once or twice a year	14	2	0	16		
Less Often	19	1	1	21		
	What is your reas	son for not practicing	g BSE?			
I do not have a breast problem	18	2	1	21		
I do not think I should	1	2	0	3		
I do not know how to do it	9	0	0	9		
I do not know	13	1	4	18		

IV. DISCUSSION

37

Other

The paper examined breast cancer screening practices among African immigrant women in the United States, with a focus on critical challenges that significantly hinder timely detection and care. Although one hundred and nineteen African immigrants reported higher levels of education and fifty-six reported a >\$50,000 household income in comparison to other minority groups [15, 7], the findings show the persistent existence of considerable barriers that are cultural, linguistic, and systemic. The varying uptake of breast self-examinations (BSE) and mammography screenings vividly demonstrates these barriers. Many participants expressed that they either do not regularly participate in screening practices or depend on nonmedical advice, such as informal consultations with family or friends, when they suspect a possible health issue.

2

Additionally, the paper reveals that the decrease in the screening rate is strictly correlated with differing factors. Proficiency in English plays an essential role, as women with some degree of English skills often find it difficult to

0

39

ISSN No:-2456-2165

communicate effectively within the healthcare system. Also, nine participants indicated a limited knowledge of the complexities of the U.S. healthcare system in terms of navigating insurance and appointment scheduling, which greatly influences their health-seeking behaviour. Cultural beliefs concerning illness and health, including stigmatization related to breast cancer and mistrust in medical professionals, play a vital role in influencing their engagement in preventive health practices. These factors altogether create a challenging environment for African immigrant women, eventually affecting their ability to access and benefit from early breast screening practices. This result is in line with previous studies that reveal the lack of culturally sensitive healthcare facilities, which leads to delays in screening, even among women with higher education levels [12, 14].

The data demonstrate that women with a higher educational achievement were more likely to partake in the regular screening practices. However, the presence of ongoing disparities means that educational achievement by itself cannot resolve the varying hindrances faced by this demographic. The intricate relationship between socioeconomic factors, cultural beliefs, and steering the healthcare system highlights the importance of specific targeted interventions [5, 6].

The importance of prior and more regular screening practices in this demographic is emphasized by the recent findings demonstrating that women of African descent are at a higher risk of developing aggressive subtypes of breast cancer, such as the triple-negative breast cancer linked to BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutations [16, 17]. These findings are in line with the national trends, revealing that breast cancer continues to be the leading cause of mortality among American women [3].

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the paper reveals the significant paucities in breast cancer screening practices in African immigrant women in the U.S., although their socioeconomic conditions are more favourable in comparison to other minority groups. Cultural, linguistic, and systemic barriers greatly hinder screening and prior detection, leading to elevated mortality rates within this demographic [4, 2]. The data shows the importance of the need for public health strategies that are culturally informed and can effectively address these challenges.

Community-oriented interventions, targeted educational initiatives, and collaborations with reliable local organizations (such as faith-based groups and community health centers) are essential for refining health literacy and increasing the rate of screening practices [13, 15].

In addition, policy initiatives that ensure access to healthcare services that are profound to language and culture could significantly reduce the disparities seen in screening practices. Future research should keep investigating creative methods to engage African immigrant women, eventually supporting better breast cancer outcomes through early detection and intervention [6, 12]. By confronting these intricate issues through an allinclusive approach, healthcare professionals and policymakers can collaborate to ensure that breast cancer screening and subsequent care are both available and effective for African immigrant women in the U.S.

https://doi.org/10.38124/ijisrt/25apr824

VI. LIMITATIONS

Even though this paper reveals valuable insights into the experiences and challenges the African immigrants in the U.S. face, it is important to acknowledge its limitations. The sample size of the participants for the study may not have adequately represented the full range of diversity within the African immigrant population, which incorporates a wide range of ethics backgrounds, languages, and cultural practices. In addition, the cross-sectional method limits the ability to draw conclusive decisions about causality, as it captures data at a single point in time rather than over a long period.

To improve the strength of future research, it is essential to make use of larger and more diverse samples that better reflect the complex nature of the demographic. Implementing longitudinal methods would enable researchers to track changes over time and gain deeper insights into the long-term effects of culturally targeted initiatives on the health and wellbeing of African immigrants. Studies can also consider integrating a qualitative approach to include individual narratives and experiences, therefore providing a more nuanced understanding of the needs and effectiveness of interventions.

REFERENCES

- Arnold, M.; Morgan, E.; Rumgay, H.; Mafra, A.; Singh, D.; Laversanne, M.; Vignat, J.; Gralow, J.R.; Cardoso, F.; Siesling, S.; et al. Current and future burden of breast cancer: Global statistics for 2020 and 2040. Breast 2022, 66, 15–23.
- [2]. Wilkinson, L., Gathani, T. Understanding breast cancer as a global health concern. Br. J. Radiol. 2022, 95, 20211033.
- [3]. Siegel, R.L.; Giaquinto, A.N.; Jemal, A. Cancer statistics, 2024. CA Cancer J Clin. 2024, 74, 12–49.
- [4]. Giaquinto, A.N.; Miller, K.D.; Tossas, K.Y.; Winn, R.A.; Jemal, A.; Siegel, R.L. Cancer statistics for African American/Black People 2022. CA Cancer J. Clin. 2022, 72, 202–229.
- [5]. Bailey, Z.D.; Krieger, N.; Agénor, M.; Graves, J.; Linos, N.; Bassett, M.T. Structural racism and health inequities in the USA: Evidence and interventions. Lancet 2017, 389, 1453–1463.
- [6]. Williams, D.R.; Lawrence, J.A.; Davis, B.A. Racism and Health: Evidence and Needed Research. Annu. Rev. Public Health 2019, 40, 105–125.
- [7]. Tamir, A. One-in-Ten Black People Living in the U.S. Are Immigrants. Available online: https://www.pewresearch.org/raceandethnicity/2022/01/20/one-in-ten-black-people-livingin-the-u-s-are-immigrants/ (accessed on 18 July 2024).
- [8]. Argeseanu Cunningham, S.; Ruben, J.D.; Narayan, K.M. Health of foreign-born people in the United States: A review. Health Place 2008, 14, 623–635.

- [9]. Derose, K.P.; Escarce, J.J.; Lurie, N. Immigrants and health care: Sources of vulnerability. Health Aff. 2007, 26, 1258–1268.
- [10]. Ahad, F.B.; Zick, C.D.; Simonsen, S.E.; Mukundente, V.; Davis, F.A.; Digre, K. Assessing the Likelihood of Having a Regular Health Care Provider among African American and African Immigrant Women. Ethn. Dis. 2019, 29, 253–260. [CrossRef]
- [11]. Back, E.E.; Bachwani, A.S.; Strogatz, D.S.; Sherman, Z.M. Profile of diabetes mellitus among immigrants from Guyana: Epidemiology and implications for community action. Ethn. Dis. 2012, 22, 473–478.
- [12]. Gondek, M.; Shogan, M.; Saad-Harfouche, F.G.; Rodriguez, E.M.; Erwin, D.O.; Griswold, K.; Mahoney, M.C. Engaging Immigrant and Refugee Women in Breast Health Education. J. Cancer Educ. 2015, 30, 593– 598.
- [13]. Bigby, J.; Ko, L.K.; Johnson, N.; David, M.M.; Ferrer, B. A community approach to addressing excess breast and cervical cancer mortality among women of African descent in Boston. Public Health Rep. 2003, 118, 338– 347.
- [14]. Sheppard, V.B.; Christopher, J.; Nwabukwu, I. Breaking the silence barrier: Opportunities to address breast cancer in African-born women. J. Natl. Med. Assoc. 2010, 102, 461–468.
- [15]. Adekeye, O.; Kimbrough, J.; Obafemi, B.; Strack, R.W. Health literacy from the perspective of African immigrant youth and elderly: A PhotoVoice project. J. Health Care Poor Underserved 2014, 25, 1730–1747.
- [16]. Ansari-Pour, N.; Zheng, Y.; Yoshimatsu, T.F.; Sanni, A.; Ajani, M.; Reynier, J.B.; Tapinos, A.; Pitt, J.J.; Dentro, S.; Woodard, A.; et al. Whole-genome analysis of Nigerian patients with breast cancer reveals ethnicdriven somatic evolution and distinct genomic subtypes. Nat. Commun. 2021, 12, 6946.
- [17]. André, F.; Zielinski, C.C. Optimal strategies for the treatment of metastatic triple-negative breast cancer with currently approved agents. Ann. Oncol. 2012, 23 (Suppl. S6), vi46–vi51. [CrossRef]
- [18]. Hercules, S.M.; Alnajar, M.; Chen, C.; Mladjenovic, S.M.; Shipeolu, B.A.; Perkovic, O.; Pond, G.R.; Mbuagbaw, L.; Blenman, K.R.; Daniel, J.M. Triplenegative breast cancer prevalence in Africa: A systematic review and meta-analysis. BMJ Open 2022, 12, e055735.
- [19]. Prat, A.; Pineda, E.; Adamo, B.; Galván, P.; Fernández, A.; Gaba, L.; Díez, M.; Viladot, M.; Arance, A.; Muñoz, M. Clinical implications of the intrinsic molecular subtypes of breast cancer. Breast 2015, 24 (Suppl. S2), S26–S35. [CrossRef]
- [20]. Corra, M. Immigration from Africa to the United States: Key insights from recent research. Front. Sociol. 2023, 8, 1171818. [CrossRef]
- [21]. Tamir, C. Key Findings about Black Immigrants in the U.S. Available online: https://www.pewresearch.org/short-

reads/2022/01/27/key-findings-about-black-immigrantsin-the-u-s/ (accessed on 22 October 2023). [22]. DeSantis CE, Ma J, Goding Sauer A, Newman LA, Jemal A. Breast cancer statistics, 2017, racial disparity in mortality by state. CA Cancer J Clin. 2017;67(6):439– 448. doi: 10.3322/caac.21412

https://doi.org/10.38124/ijisrt/25apr824

- [23]. Hunt BR, Hurlbert MS. Black:white disparities in breast cancer mortality in the 50 largest cities in the United States, 2005–2014. Cancer Epidemiol. 2016;45:169– 173. doi: 10.1016/j.canep.2016.07.018
- [24]. Collin LJ, Jiang R, Ward KC, Gogineni K, Subhedar PD, Sherman ME, et al. Racial disparities in breast cancer outcomes in the Metropolitan Atlanta Area: new insights and approaches for health equity. JNCI Cancer Spectr. 2019 doi: 10.1093/jncics/pkz053. [DOI] [PMC free article] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [25]. Newman LA, Kaljee LM. Health disparities and triplenegative breast cancer in african american women: a review. JAMA Surg. 2017;152(5):485–493. doi: 10.1001/jamasurg.2017.0005. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [26]. Miller BC, Bowers JM, Payne JB, Moyer A. Barriers to mammography screening among racial and ethnic minority women. Soc Sci Med. 2019;239:112494. doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2019.112494. [DOI] [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
- [27]. Henderson LM, O'Meara ES, Haas JS, Lee CI, Kerlikowske K, Sprague BL, et al. The role of social determinants of health in self-reported access to health care among women undergoing screening mammography. J Womens Health. 2020;29(11):1437– 1446. doi: 10.1089/jwh.2019.8267.
- [28]. Howlader N, Altekruse SF, Li CI, et al. US incidence of breast cancer subtypes defined by joint hormone receptor and HER2 status. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2014; 106: dju055.
- [29]. Clarke CA, Keegan TH, Yang J, et al. Age-specific incidence of breast cancer subtypes: understanding the black-white crossover. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2012; 104: 1094-1101.
- [30]. Rudolph A, Milne RL, Truong T, et al. Investigation of gene-environment interactions between 47 newly identified breast cancer susceptibility loci and environmental risk factors. Int J Cancer. 2015; 136: E685-E696.
- [31]. Nickels S, Truong T, Hein R, et al. Evidence of geneenvironment interactions between common breast cancer susceptibility loci and established environmental risk factors. PLoS Genet. 2013; 9: e1003284.
- [32]. Huo D, Hu H, Rhie SK, et al. Comparison of breast cancer molecular features and survival by African and European ancestry in The Cancer Genome Atlas. JAMA Oncol. 2017; 3: 1654-1662.
- [33]. Palmer JR, Ruiz-Narvaez EA, Rotimi CN, et al. Genetic susceptibility loci for subtypes of breast cancer in an African American population. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2013; 22: 127-134.
- [34]. Fejerman L, Haiman CA, Reich D, et al. An admixture scan in 1,484 African American women with breast cancer. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2009; 18: 3110-3117.

ISSN No:-2456-2165

- [35]. Palmer JR, Ambrosone CB, Olshan AF. A collaborative study of the etiology of breast cancer subtypes in African American women: the AMBER Consortium. Cancer Causes Control. 2014; 25: 309-319.
- [36]. Ruiz-Narvaez EA, Rosenberg L, Wise LA, Reich D, Palmer JR. Validation of a small set of ancestral informative markers for control of population admixture in African Americans. Am J Epidemiol. 2011; 173: 587-592.
- [37]. Baharian S, Barakatt M, Gignoux CR, et al. The Great Migration and African-American genomic diversity. PLoS Genet. 2016; 12: e1006059.
- [38]. Adhikari K, Chacon-Duque JC, Mendoza-Revilla J, Fuentes-Guajardo M, Ruiz-Linares A. The genetic diversity of the Americas. Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet. 2017; 18: 277-296.